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ABSTRACT

This document contains the papers presented at the 1981 Ohio Council on Family Relations convention. The two papers from the first session on adolescent and student concerns discuss women students and the need for female role models and abortion attitudes among high school and college students. A paper in the second session on family and community reports on the relative effects of unemployment, age, and education on stability during the first five years of marriage. Other papers from this session provide a status report on displaced homemaker programs in Ohio and a community profile of family support systems and needs assessments. The first paper in the third session on issues in family life discusses a feasibility study of the relationship between child nutrition and family resources; the second paper examines the "macho" male and wife beating. The materials from the fourth session provide summaries of a Couples Communication Workshop presentation and a video presentation on teaching infants and toddlers. The meeting agenda is outlined in the appendix. (NRB)

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ON FAMIY RELATIONS

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FOREWORD

This second edition of the Ohio Council on Family Relations' Convention Proceedings represents a compendium of papers presented at the annual convention held at Columbus Technical Institute, Columbus, Ohio on March 20, 1981. Publication of a sample of papers presented at the conference is a means of disseminating the results of this exciting body of knowledge on many aspects of Family Relations and encourages conference participation in future years.

Council members and others have the opportunity to purchase this collection of papers at a reasonable cost for future reference. It is hoped that in the future the "Proceedings" will become integrated as part of a total system for communicating ideas responsive to the diverse needs of persons interested in many aspects of Family Relations.

The papers in this report are grouped into three areas: Adolescent and Student Concerns, Family and Community, and Issues in Family Life. Readers are encouraged to contact the authors for additional information.

The "Proceedings" from the 1980 conference entitled Proceedings of the Annual Convention of the Ohio Council on Family Relations 1980 are available from the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) as ED 201 942.

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WOMEN STUDENTS AND THE NEED FOR FEMALE ROLE MODELS

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ABSTRACT

The presence of a female role model results in the selection of higher status careers by most women students. This is very apparent at women's colleges where the student is surrounded by other females and feels free to express her ambitions. This phenomenon has important implications for representative numbers of female faculty in coeducational colleges, need for female counselors in high schools, women's study programs, and college courses on the dual family.

Historical analysis of views on the education of women are most revealing and this is true whether one studies Eastern of Western history. For example, there is a Chinese proverb which states, "The glory of a man is knowledge, but the glory of a woman is to renounce knowledge." In our own Western tradition, Jean-Jacques Rousseau writes:

"The whole education of women ought to be relative to men. To please them, to be useful to them, to make themselves loved and honored by them, to educate them when young, to care for them when grown, to counsel them, to console them and to make life sweet and agreeable to them -- these are the duties of women at all times and what should be taught them from infancy."

In our own times, there is considerable attention give to the debate between those who still feel Rousseau's advice is well taken and those who believe that the education of women and the education of men should urge both toward the glory of the acquisition of knowledge. But what do we actually know about higher education and women? What is it that research can tell us about the women who choose to attend universities in order to attain positions in their careers of choice? Numerous studies have indicated that a mother's employment impacts on the daughter's career choices in a very definite way. If a mother works outside the home, the daughter is predisposed toward higher status career choices (Almquist and Angrist, 1971). This is particularly true for daughters of mothers who enjoyed their jobs and obtained great satisfaction from combining the roles of wife/mother and career woman (Fogarty, Rapoport, and Rapoport, 1971). Mothers also serve as role models for their daughters in another way.

When mothers hold graduate degrees (Masters or Ph.D.) their daughters are more likely to choose a nontraditional career (Tangri, 1972). So, as one might expect, the mother certainly serves as a primary role model for female children.

What do we know about the impact of women other than mothers on the college age woman? Farley (1978) has found that women who attend women's colleges (as opposed to coeducational institutions) are happiest with their choice of a college. This may well be because the faculty in women's colleges is generally composed of a greater proportion of females than is the case in coeducational schools, and because all the young woman's classmates will be women. She is then surrounded by women who feel free to express their ambitions. This same research found that women at coeducational colleges are more likely to expect life satisfaction from a family rather than from a career while the opposite is true of women from female colleges. Again the importance of female role models is evidenced.

Farley's (1979) research is speaking of feelings and expectations - what about actual behavior? Oates and Williamson (1978) in another study found that more high achievers (in terms of both career choices and career success) come from women's colleges than from coeducational institutions. Finally, Holstrom and Holstrom (1974) discovered that women who enter graduate school are more likely to complete their advanced degrees if they have a woman for a major professor and mentor. It may well be that women who are making non-traditional choices in terms of career and advanced education are particularly in need of the female role model, a woman who is evidence to them that "it can be done."

What can those of us at coeducational institutions do? An awareness of the research in the area on the part of both male and female faculty members is critical. As faculty members and administrators, we must work to ensure representative proportions of female faculty members particularly in traditionally male fields such as mathematics and the sciences.

We must also look at the career counseling for females as it occurs in our high schools and colleges. Research indicates that male counselors in particular are uninformed about women's participation in the labor force. In general, these counselors believe that women enter the labor market and drop out to marry and have children within three years, although this has not been the case for some time (Bingham and House, 1973).

We must also look at the woman's studies offerings in our institutions. Bulpit (1977) and Hursey (1978) have found that women in coeducational institutions are helped by women's studies programs where they can deal with concerns that are uniquely women's. Exposure to women's studies courses influences the job plans of most women in that taking such courses aids them in choosing nontraditional fields. Such classes appear to lead to an increase in the sense of self-worth

and of independence in women students. Both of these factors are associated with career orientation. Given that we know that women's self-concepts are higher when they pursue careers as opposed to becoming homemakers (Ilfeld, 1977; Baruch and Bennett, 1980), we have an obligation as faculty members to make our female students aware of their options.

To that end, we may need to offer women (and men) support in the new choices they are making. For example, I have developed a course on the dual-career family at Bowling Green State University. This course, entitled Integrating Career and Family, is co-sponsored by two departments - Business Administration and Home Economics (Family Studies area). It is offered twice a year and so far (it has been offered three times to date), we have had to turn away nearly as many students as we have accepted in the class. Our policy has been to accept all seniors which resulted in Spring, 1981 in my "discussing" the dual career family with 84 students! Students, male and female, (though the class is 75 percent female), need information on combining the roles of professional person, spouse, and parent. They are eager to know about the research in this area, about potential pitfalls and how to avoid them. Again, this appears to emphasize the need for role models, for our students to see women who have chosen a nontraditional path, who have chosen not to "renounce knowledge," but to embrace it.

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Abortion Attitudes among High School and University Students

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To investigate abortion attitudes among high school and university students, 102 students who were matriculating at a high school and at a university completed questionnaires. Students reported their religious affiliations and their parents' educational levels. Students who reported affiliations with Catholic religion revealed less approval of abortion than did students who reported affiliations with non-Catholic religion. Abortion attitudes of university students did not differ from abortion attitudes of high school students. Conservative attitudes toward abortion were revealed by both groups of students.

One of the most emotionally laden discussion topics on human life involving extensive debate during the past decade was the question of abortion: Voluntary termination of pregnancy, particularly prior to fetal viability. The debate gained strong impetus after the United States Supreme Court handed down a monumental decision which gave women freedom of choice in terminating pregnancy or carrying a fetus to full term.

In January, 1973 the United States Supreme Court in the case of Roe v. Wade and its companion case, Doe v. Bolton, mandated restrictions on states preventing them from imposing interventions for denying abortions except only after attainment of fetal viability. In that decision the Court declared that a woman's decision to engage in elective abortion is a matter of privacy between her and her consulting physician. With that decision the Supreme Court legalized abortion in the United States and denied states the right of regulatory measures during the first trimester of pregnancy. The Court declared, however, that states may intervene during the second trimester for protection of a woman's health (Byrn 1973).

The Supreme Court rejected states' interest in abortion practices which involved enacting laws protecting human life from the time of conception on three premises. The Court declared "the unborn has never been recognized in the law as a person in the whole sense; rights extended to the newborn in torts law are contingent upon live birth and a state's interest in protecting fetal life cannot override a woman's right to privacy" (Sarvis & Rodman 1974, p. 65).

The Supreme Court decision did not go unchallenged. Religious leaders and others vociferously urged the general public to engage in lobbying for bringing about changes in the Court's decision (Paul 1979). Currently there exists concerted effort directed toward continued commitment to protecting the unborn fetus and toward effecting change or complete reversal of the Supreme Court's decision. That effort is committed toward urging Congressional enactment of a Human Life Amendment (HLA) to the Constitution of The United States. Such an amendment, if enacted, would guarantee the right to life for the unborn extending from the moment of fertilization. Those who advocate a HLA believe legalized abortion contributes to a "breakdown of traditional family values and is tantamount to genocide" (Isaacson 1981, p. 21).

The unresolved issue is concerned with when life actually begins. Given that biological life begins at fertilization a question is concerned with whether a collection of cells represents human life. Some groups of persons believe that life begins at fertilization, while others contend that life begins at implantation (Isaacson 1981, p. 23). The issue is emotional and may be long lasting.

Legalization of abortion by the Supreme Court has accompanied a rise in the number of abortions recorded for teenagers. In 1973, the year of the landmark decision, 246,000 abortions were recorded for teenagers alone. Five years later that number had almost doubled, revealing 434,000. In addition, the number of teenage pregnancies increased by 13 percent, and the greatest incidence occurred among those between 18-19 years old. During 1978 there were 685,000 pregnancies. In that age group the number of pregnancies increased by 21 percent, while the number of births

declined by only seven percent (The Alan Guttmacher Institute 1981, p. 18).

Research relating to abortion has revealed several findings. Results from a national survey found persons with college education more favorable toward abortion than were persons with grade-school education. Substantial approval of abortion was found on the basis that medical concerns about the mother's health were relevant, or defectiveness of the unborn child was suspected. In addition, men were more favorable toward abortion than were women and non-Catholics tended to approve abortion more so than did Catholics (Sarvis & Rodman 1974, p. 165).

Attitudes toward legalization of abortion have been varied. There were persons who believed that legalization should be continued on the basis that without permissive legislation many women would voluntarily terminate their pregnancies any way and large numbers of women would die due to poorly performed abortions. Opponents of legalization contended that availability of such laws makes possible the termination of one's life without that individual's permission. An embryo or a fetus is naturally unable to grant such permission (Redman & Lieberman 1973).

Obtaining information concerning attitudes about abortion increases the knowledge base on that topic. Attitudes toward abortion revealed by high school and university students may provide society with directions with respect to preventive programming and for family life education.

This research examined abortion attitudes among high school and university students. Specifically, the study was aimed at determining whether abortion attitudes among high school students differed from abortion attitudes of university students. Another purpose of the study was to determine whether factors of religion and sex of the students and numbers of years of education completed by the students' parents were significant with respect to the students' attitudes about abortion.

METHOD

Subjects

Participants in this study consisted of 50 seniors who were attending a comprehensive high school in

Northwest Ohio and 52 students who were matriculating in Child-Family Community Services classes at a university that was also located in Northwest Ohio. Only students who had reached their legal maturity and who were enrolled in no classes with Educational Mental Retardation (EMR) designations participated in the study. The latter was imposed in order to minimize the likelihood of students' failure to comprehend questionnaire items. The ages of the high school students were: $\bar{X}$ = 18.35 years, (S.D. = 0.47); ages of the university students were: $\bar{X}$ = 20.67 years, (S.D. = 1.03). The students religious affiliations were: 35 Catholics, 27 Protestants and 40 who reported "Other" or no religious affiliations.

Procedure

Attitudes toward abortion were measured with a scale consisting of 25 five-point Likert type items, "A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes Toward Abortion" (Bardis 1978). See Table 1. The score for each item was: 0 = Strongly disagree, 1 = Disagree, 2 = Undecided, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree. The range of possible scores on the instrument was from 0 (least approval of abortion) to 100 (greatest approval). Data in this study were analyzed with various statistical techniques.

RESULTS

Results of a one-way ANOVA revealed no significant differences in attitudes toward abortion between high school and university students. However, differences in abortion attitudes on the basis of religion were significant ($F = 4.88$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$). Students who reported their affiliations with Catholic religion revealed less approval of abortion than did students from Protestant and "Other" affiliations. The scores were: For Catholics, $\bar{X}$ = 32.7, (S.D. = 20.2), for Protestants, $\bar{X}$ = 40.6, (S.D. = 24.3) and for students with "Other" affiliations, $\bar{X}$ = 48.1, (S.D. = 20.7). Sex of the students and their parents' educational levels failed to reach significance.

Since the initial ANOVA indicated a significant difference with respect to religious affiliations of the students, a factorial ANOVA was performed with sex, group, mothers' and fathers' educational levels serving as independent variables and with religion serving as the dependent variable in the study. No

Table 1

A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes Toward Abortion

Item numbers	Items
1.	Abortion is all right during the first three months of pregnancy.
2.	Abortion is not murder.
3.	Abortion should be given to single women.
4.	Abortion is not sinful.
5.	Abortion laws should be liberal.
6.	If the family cannot support another child, abortion is all right.
7.	Abortion is not immoral.
8.	Man has the right to destroy life in the womb.
9.	Abortion should be legalized.
10.	If the child is not wanted, abortion is all right.
11.	Abortion is a human right.
12.	Easy abortion will not lower the value of human life.
13.	In cases of rape, abortion should be allowed.
14.	Abortion is right, when the fetus is too young to live outside the womb.
15.	Abortion should be used to reduce illegitimacy.
16.	Abortion should be used as a birth control.
17.	The embryo is not really a human being.
18.	Abortion is acceptable when the father abandons the mother.
19.	Illegitimacy justifies abortion.
20.	Where the child is likely to be born physically defective, abortion should be allowed.
21.	Just because a child is conceived, it does not mean that it has a right to live.
22.	Abortion is better than marriage forced by pregnancy.
23.	Having unwanted children is worse than abortion.
24.	In cases of incest, abortion should be allowed.
25.	Easy abortion will not increase promiscuity.

Source: Panos Bardis, Department of Sociology, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio. Persons who wish to obtain copies of the questionnaire may contact the above source.

significant differences were found. A noteworthy finding in this study was in relation to the direction of mean scores on the 25 questionnaire items (Table 2). Inspection of Table 2 reveals that the means of 21 items were in the direction of disapproval of abortion, while means of only four items (23, 20, 24, 13) represented undecided attitudes.

DISCUSSION

This study of attitudes toward abortion leads to the conclusion that there is strong disapproval of abortion among some high school and university students. Students did not report approval of abortion even in instances where a woman has been a victim of rape or incest (items 13, 24).

These attitudes revealed by students could be related to several explanations. One of those could arise from students' knowledge of fetal life gained from their formal study of early human development and from information generated by the media. The media has portrayed visual (although vicarious) representations of the developing embryo and fetus and some have depicted the aborted fetus as a gruesome, frightening and noxious appearing object. As a result, students may hold strong beliefs about destroying a human fetus. Students could believe that abortion is damaging to a woman physically and psychologically and may leave her with feelings of guilt and depression. In addition, students may hold moral commitments to the preservation of human life. Whatever their belief systems represent, students in this study have revealed attitudes that there are no alternatives to pregnancy other than to carry the fetus to term.

An implication of findings from this study relates to the likelihood of a need for family life education to be included in curricula directed toward high school students. On the basis that research has revealed a rise in the number of teenage pregnancies (The Alan Guttmacher Institute 1981), education about pregnancy, child rearing and other aspects of family is certainly important for helping potential parents in their role effectiveness.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Items on "A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes Toward Abortion"

Item numbers	Means	Standard deviations
15	0.54	0.82
21	1.04	1.09
17	1.19	1.10
8	1.25	1.15
19	1.28	1.08
10	1.47	1.29
12	1.53	1.12
2	1.54	1.33
14	1.58	1.24
18	1.58	1.03
7	1.60	1.21
25	1.60	1.06
3	1.63	1.34
5	1.64	1.30
1	1.68	1.24
6	1.69	1.31
11	1.72	1.32
4	1.75	1.34
9	1.86	1.43
22	1.87	1.29
23	2.12	1.18
20	2.18	1.20
24	2.47	1.05
13	2.80	1.14

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THE RELATIVE EFFECTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, AGE AND EDUCATION ON STABILITY DURING THE FIRST FIVE YEARS OF MARRIAGE

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ABSTRACT

Recent research has provided little evidence for the proposed linkage of income to marital stability. However, the importance of the couple's economic stability has received both theoretical and empirical attention. One economic factor that has not been investigated is employment stability. This paper addresses the relative importance of unemployment in conjunction with previously identified demographic variables for predicting marital stability. 223 subjects who were never married at the first interview, but married by the second interview were selected from the National Labor Survey of Young Men. Multiple regression techniques were utilized to analyze the relative effects of the variables on marital stability. The results indicated that Age at Marriage, Rate of Unemployment, Level of Education and the Amount of the Wife's Alternative Monetary Sources had significant independent effects. The implications of the results for Family Theory and social programming are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

In the last 10-15 years several theoretical and empirical articles have been directed towards understanding the possible relationship between a couple's economic well-being and their marital stability. Originally the husband's income was thought to be the primary positive influence on the couple's decision to divorce or remain together (Cutright, 1971; Becker, 1974). Recent research, however, has provided little convincing evidence for any strong direct effects for either spouse's income on marital stability (Galligan & Bahr, 1978; Hannan et al., 1977). These results notwithstanding, some evidence has been presented to implicate the importance of other factors comprising a couple's economic stability for maintaining their marital stability.

In light of the tradition of research into the antecedents of divorce, this paper has two basic purposes. The first purpose is to assess the individual and relative effects of indicators suggested to influence marital stability through the use of longitudinal data for a cohort of males followed through their first five years of marriage. The second purpose is to address prediction differences between two explanatory theories of marital stability using the data analysis.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Two bodies of literature have developed over the last twenty years that utilize demographic indicators to explain the process where a marriage will end in a divorce or separation. One body focuses on the social/psychological dynamics within the relationship, considering facets of marital quality as the key mediating factors (Lewis and Spanier, 1979; Spanier and Fleer, 1979). The other body focuses on the exchange properties in a relationship and considers the profitability of staying married as the key factor (Becker, 1974, 1979; Becker et al., 1977; Michael, 1979).

The first group of writings focus on the demographic or individual characteristics of the couple (ie. age, education, etc.). Cutright's (1971) work is seminal in the development of theory using demographic variables. He organized what had previously been descriptive studies of bivariate relationships between characteristics and marital stability into an ordered model of the assumed impact of the variables. While his original work focused on the role of income in divorce, he speculated that variables which were based on the couple's use of their income might be more important. Galligan and Bahr's (1978) identification of a direct effect for assets and education; Jorgensen's (1979) study on perceived adequacy of income; and Scanzoni's (1975) study of perceptual and economic factors are supportive of Cutright's speculations. Additional evidence is provided by studies looking at the effects of the wife's employment and transfer incomes (Hannan et al., 1977; Ross and Sawhill, 1975). In essence, researchers using demographic variables are indicating a minor role for actual levels of income and a more important role for background variables and economic stability variables.

Another variable that is often linked with divorce or separation but infrequently included in demographic

analyses is unemployment (Cavan, 1959; Cavan and Ranck, 1938: Komarovsky, 1940; Rainwater, 1966; Whyte, 1943). Desertion by an unemployed husband has often been used as a reason for applying for welfare (Chilman, 1975). Hampton's (1979) study indicated a negative relationship between employment problems and marital stability. Thomas et al. (1980), however, indicated that the assumed negative effects of unemployment may not exist for currently married couples. Most work to date would consider unemployment as an indicator of a couple's economic stability (Moen, 1980) with a negative relationship to marital stability (Moen, 1975).

A major criticism that can be leveled at this body of research is its lack of a theoretical orientation involving mediating factors to meld the demographic indicators into an explanatory model. Lewis and Spanier (1979) have suggested that the concept of marital quality would be a key antecedent of marital stability (Levinger, 1966; Spanier and Fleer, 1979; Spanier and Lewis, 1980). Burr et al (1979) have indicated that marital satisfaction would be the more appropriate antecedent variable (Burgess and Cottrell, 1939; Burr, 1973) and that other social/psychological and demographic variables would influence marital satisfaction. Thus we could sequence the variables so that the demographic factors would interact with attitudinal variable to influence marital quality or satisfaction. Marital satisfaction or quality would then be the main influence on marital stability.

The second set of articles dealing with marital stability also contain a difficult to measure variable, namely profit or utility. These papers focus on the notion that marital stability is the relational outcome of the couple's cost/benefit analysis. Becker (1974, 1979) and Michael (1979) have been key authors behind this approach which is labeled "family or new home economics." Using concepts from traditional economic theory (as opposed to behavioral exchange theory) they focus on the assumptions of the stability of personal preferences over time and the maximization of personal profit in relationships. Divorce, then, is seen as the response of a couple to a relationship that has lost its utility or profitability. Michael (1979) in his review of past research notes that variables such as age at marriage, income, assets, education and race can be viewed as indicators of personal profit or cost which can be used to estimate the utility of the relationship and predict its stability.

The economic approach, while very different in its explanatory concepts, identifies the same measurement strategies as the demographic approach. It is this feature of the conceptual models that lends them to empirical comparison (Thomas et al, 1980). The models of marital stability developed from the two approaches differ in their conceptual emphasis leading to prediction differences of the strength or direction of relationships. The economic model focuses on the primary importance of income, particularly the wife's income for influencing stability. The husband's income is assumed to be the strongest positive influence on stability. The wife's income from either employment or other sources is assumed to wield a strong negative influence on stability. Indicators such as family assets and family income are expected to have a lesser relationship to stability. Other factors such as age at marriage, education, race and employment status are expected to have no direct influence on stability, operating instead through the income variables.

The demographic model, however, has diminished the role of income and given greater importance to personal characteristics such as age at marriage or education, and economic stability indicators such as assets and unemployment. The levels of income (wife's, husband's or family's) are not expected to influence marital stability. Instead the background or economic stability indicators are expected to have direct effects on marital stability. In particular assets and unemployment would be expected to have the stronger influence with age at marriage, race and education having secondary influences.

SAMPLE

The data for this analysis were collected as part of the National Longitudinal Survey of Market Experience conducted by the Center for Human Resource Research at Ohio State University. A multi-stage sampling procedure was used to identify a national probability sample in four different age/sex groups. To provide reliable data for blacks, households in predominantly black enumeration districts were oversampled. For the present analysis only the cohort of young males was used (age 14-24 at initial interview). Each male was interviewed annually for six years beginning in 1968.

A purpose of this study was to examine marital dissolution longitudinally for a cohort married within the same year. Therefore it was necessary to restrict the analysis to only those young men who were unmarried at the first interview, but married by the second interview, a total of 259. Of these individuals, 90 percent (223) were able to be interviewed for the five year period following their marriage. An analysis of the responses of these 223 young men is the basis for this paper.

MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

The dependent variable in the present analysis was marital stability, a dichotomous variable. The marital status of each male was obtained at each interview. Those who were married between the first and second interviews, and remained married during all subsequent interviews were classified as stable. Those who were married between the first and second interviews, and were divorced or separated at a subsequent interview were considered to be unstable.

Nine independent variables were used in the present analysis. Information about the couple's financial situation were gathered at different interviews (Galligan and Bahr, 1978). The information from the third interview was pooled into an index labeled "Family Assets" and measured in dollars. The indicator "Age at Marriage" was the age in years for the male at the time of his marriage. The index of "Race" was coded as one for Caucasians, two for Afro-Americans. The index of "Husband's Education" was measured as years of schooling. The income indicators were measured in dollars for the year of marriage. Two indicators were constructed for wives. "Wife's Income" was her earned income from employment. "Wife's Alternate Income" was her income from all other sources, including gifts from relatives and transfer payments. Finally, "Rate of Unemployment" was measured as the number of spells of unemployment between the marriage and either the year of instability or the final interview divided by that number of years.

RESULTS

Data were analyzed using the Pearson's correlation and the multiple regression routines of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Results for the

correlation analysis are presented in Table 1. All the independent variable's except one were significantly correlated with the marital stability indicator. Only the coefficient for husband's income (r=.10) did not achieve significance. The signs on the coefficients were in the expected directions except for wife's income, which reached a moderate, positive level (r=.18) when a negative direction had been expected.

To test the multivariate predictions of the conceptual models, multiple regression was used to determine the independent variables which had significant impacts on marital stability when the other variables were controlled. Table 2 presents the results of the regression analysis. Four of the variables had significant coefficients in the expected directions. Age at marriage (Beta=.21), wife's alternate income (Beta=.25), rate of unemployment (Beta=.18) and husband's education (Beta=.18) were all found to influence marital stability. The variance in stability (R^2=.23) accounted for by the combined variables is at least twice as much as most demographic analyses have reported.

TABLE 1: ZERO-ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS*

	MS	FA	AM	R	HE	HI	WI	RU	FI
1. FA**	.21								
2. AM	.32	.28							
3. R	-.13	-.26	.01						
4. HE	.29	.38	.41	-.29					
5. HI	.10	.08	.20	-.07	.01				
6. WI	.18	.20	.20	-.28	.22	.14			
7. RU	-.25	-.22	-.17	-.11	-.20	-.08	-.15		
8. FI	.18	.16	.25	-.18	.17	.71	.41	-.09	
9. WA	-.26	-.04	-.02	-.05	.03	.12	.04	.02	.03

*$r \geq .11$ are significant at $p < .05$ level.

**MS=Marital Stability; FA=Family Assets; AM=Age at Marriage; R=Race, HE=Husband's Education; HI=Husband's Income; WI=Wife's Income; RU=Rate of Unemployment; FI=Family Income; WA=Wife's Alternate Income

TABLE 2: MULTIPLE REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS FOR ANTECEDENTS OF MARITAL STABILITY (223 cases)

Variable	Standardized Coefficient	Standard Error	F
AM	.207	.034	9.939
WA	-.254	.0002	18.076
RU	-.175	.068	8.247
HE	.178	.010	7.238
Constant = 0.329			
R^2 = 0.226			
Adj. R^2 = 0.213			

DISCUSSION

The results of the data analysis indicated that the earned income variables had little effect on marital dissolution. Family assets, while moderately related to marital stability at the bivariate level, showed no effect when other relevant variables were controlled. For race, while the black/white instability differential was the same as in other analyses, there was no effect on stability when other variables were controlled. These data indicated that age at marriage, level of education, stability of employment and unearned sources of income for the wife combined to influence the rate of marital stability.

We conclude that the theoretical position of the demographic/marital quality authors is generally supported by these data. As predicted income had relatively little effect while the personal characteristics and economic stability indicators showed the strongest influence. The major negative finding was that the wife's alternate income and the husband's age at marriage showed stronger effects than did unemployment and assets. However, the overall direction and strength of effects supports the marital quality model.

Two other conclusions with implications can be drawn from these data. First, the wife's income was positively related to marital stability at the bivariate level. This is contrary to predictions made by the alternative resources theory (Ross & Sawhill, 1975) or the economic model. However, when marital

satisfaction is included as a mediating variable, the positive direction should not be unexpected. Recent research has indicated a positive relation between the wife's employment indicators and marital satisfaction (Rallings & Nye, 1979). Thus, if there is a positive link from satisfaction to marital stability, there should also be a positive relation from earned income to stability. We conclude from this positve relationship and the negative coefficient for wife's alternate income and stability that female employment either prior to or early in the marriage will lead to a more stable relationship. This implies that efforts to train young women for participation in the workforce may also serve to strengthen families.

Secondly, these results indicate that unemployment is a significant factor to consider in studying marital disruption. Both at the bivariate and multivariate levels, the frequency of the male's employment instability was strongly related to marital instability. This implies that a policy of full employment for the U.S. workforce would likely be very beneficial for strengthening families.

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STATUS REPORT: DISPLACED HOMEMAKER PROGRAMS OPERATED BY THE DIVISION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION OHIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Displaced homemakers have been legislatively defined (P.L. 94-482, Sec. 104.621) as a) persons who had been homemakers but who now, because of dissolution of marriage, must seek employment; b) persons who are single heads of households and who lack adequate job skills; c) persons who are currently homemakers and part-time workers but who wish to secure a full-time job; and d) persons who are now in jobs which have been traditionally considered jobs for persons of their sex and who wish to seek employment in job areas which have not been traditionally considered jobs for persons of their sex.

The Ohio Division of Vocational Education, Home Economics Section, funded six pilot Displaced Homemaker Programs in 1978-79. This state project has grown to 25 program sites in 1980/81. A five week pre-employment program focuses upon personal development, survival skills, career exploration, job readiness, and home/family management. Skill training and classwork toward completion of high school education are provided.

Data have been collected by means of a) pre/post participant self evaluations, b) entry and exit participant surveys, and c) a three month follow-up study reflecting the employment and education status of participants and participants' evaluation of the program.

Successes of this program with respect to employment and participant evaluations are considered to be related to state coordination and leadership, linkages with agencies for broad service coverage, local coordination via established educational networks, and a strong in-service program for local program coordinators.

Background and Rationale

Displaced homemakers have been legislatively defined (P.L. 94-482, Section 104.621) as a) persons who had been homemakers but who now, because of dissolution of marriage, must seek employment; b) persons who are single heads of households and who lack adequate job skills; c) persons who are currently homemakers and part-time workers but who wish to secure a full-time job; and d) persons who are now in jobs which have been traditionally considered jobs for persons of their sex and who wish to seek employment in job areas which have not been traditionally considered jobs for persons of their sex.

Two legislative amendments (Educational Amendments of 1976 - P.L. 94-482 - Vocational Education Act; and Title III - Special Federal Responsibilities - P.L. 95-524 - CETA Reauthorization of 1978) have mandated that state and local attention be given to this population.

Approximately 550 programs worked directly with this population in the United States in 1980 (Displaced Homemaker Resource Guide). Structure, funding, size, and operational procedures for these programs vary greatly. The chief unifying characteristic of these programs is the objective for participants to deal with the reality of their environment and become responsible for their own lives. Many programs emphasize entry into a new phase of adult life and preparation for the reality of the work world. Other programs focus more directly on employment via preparation for entering the work environment, job training programs, and preparation for high school or college entrance or reentrance.

Program Description

Displaced Homemaker Programs were sponsored by the Home Economics Section, Vocational Education Division, Ohio Department of Education in 1978-79 with six program sites and have expanded to 25 sites (fiscal year 1980-81) throughout the state. The programs, funded in part by Vocational Education and by the Office of Manpower Development, are aimed primarily at CETA (Comprehensive Employment and Training Act) eligible people. Each of the 25 sites operates at an approximate cost of $29,351.00 and serves approximately 53 persons. This yields an approximate cost of $554 per participant.

The major overarching goal of these programs is to assist individuals and their families so they can cope with their environment and manage their own lives. This goal is approached by means of a five-week session of modules related to five specific areas. If desired, skill training is available in various areas. During the five week session students can work on the GED (Graduation

Equivalency Diploma).

The five modules and their accompanying goals and content are:

Survival Skills Module

To assist the displaced homemaker in developing the knowledge and skills needed for independent living. Displaced homemakers will extend their survival skills by:

forming personal support systems
analyzing personal legal problems
analyzing personal money problems
refining consumer purchasing techniques
maintaining their home
maintaining their car
practicing single parenting techniques

Personal Development Module

To assist the displaced homemaker in coping with immediate problems and in developing self awareness, self confidence, and self motivation. Displaced homemakers will build more positive self concepts by:

practicing good mental health habits
maintaining good physical health and grooming habits
communicating with others using assertive techniques
clarifying personal values
using the decision-making process

Career Exploration Module

To assist the displaced homemaker in assessing work interests and abilities, in exploring career options, and in completing an individualized career plan. Displaced homemakers will explore career options by:

assessing work interests, aptitudes, and skills
clarifying work needs, values, and attitudes
investigating a variety of jobs that match interests and aptitudes
identifying feasible career choice and needed job preparation

Job Readiness Module

To assist the displaced homemaker in locating possible jobs, interviewing for jobs, and succeeding on the job. Displaced homemakers will expand job search and seizure skills by:

locating available jobs
preparing a resume and applying for desired job
using correct interviewing procedures
identifying responsibilities for keeping new job

Home and Family Management Module

To assist the displaced homemaker in organizing the home so she/he can manage both home and employment responsibilities. Displaced homemakers will organize for the dual role homemaker and wage earner by:

arranging for child care
managing time, money, and energy
arranging nutritious meals
arranging household routines
planning time for personal growth and interests

Data Collection

Data have been collected continuously in order to evaluate and revise program procedures. Evaluation consists mainly of pre/post self rating scales, entry stage and exit stage participant data, followup data at three months after the program, and followup of non-completers.

The total data collection phase considers participant self assessment, participant assessment of the program, participant employment status, family coping behaviors of the participant, and assessment by the program coordinator. During the 1979/80 program year data collection was computerized.

Findings

During the 1979/80 program year 923 persons entered the five week module sessions. An additional 300 persons were counseled by the local coordinator. Brief descriptive data pertaining to the 923 participants are included.

Income:	71% had an annual income of $5,000 or less
Sex:	99% were female
Age:	43% were age 30 - 39
Race:	81% white 17% black 1% Asian
Education:	53% had less than a high school diploma

Greatest problem as determined by participant:	43% financial
	12% employment needs
	12% emotional/psychological
	10% dealing with children

General findings at the end of the five week modules and at the three month followup were:

Thirteen percent of the participants were employed at the end of the modules, and 59% were employed at the three month period. Employment was primarily in clerical, service work, and lower level sales.

Of the 53% who entered the program without a high school diploma, 23% had gotten the GED by 3 months after the program.

Type of financial assistance received was recorded at program entry and at three months after the modules:

	program entry	three months after modules
alimony	4%	4%
child support	13%	11%
pension/insurance	4%	4%
AFDC	58%	50%
training subsidy	12%	16%
food stamps	59%	52%
Social Security	11%	12%
subsidized housing	8%	8%
other	9%	9%
no assistance	8%	13%

Evaluation of the program by participants was positive. Examples of such evaluation questions and responses include:

Would you recommend this program to other displaced homemakers?

95% yes
1% no
4% not sure

What do you think about the time allowed for the program (5 weeks)?

3% too long
41% just right
48% too short
6% not sure

Were you better prepared for skill training because of the Displaced Homemaker Program?

91% yes
3% no
6% not sure

Were you better prepared for job hunting because of the Displaced Homemaker Program?

94% yes
5% no
1% not sure

How do you feel right now about your personal and family life? (Asked at end of program.)

7% same as when I started
90% better than when I started
1% not as good as when I started

Program Development

These state sponsored programs while functioning with state guidelines and leadership operated with a high degree of autonomy. Programs differed with respect to type and degree of local support, recruitment policies and procedures, and program names (such as Live, AWAKE, Step Up, and On Your Own).

A state level project director provided for the development of numerous materials including brochures, self-help cards, posters, certificates of achievement, a resource guide, an administrator's guide, an evaluation guide, and a twenty minute film depicting the lives of three program participants.

Recommendations for Program Improvement

The following are considered to be improvements in meeting the needs of displaced homemakers and in strengthening the programs.

Inclusion of non-CETA eligible participants by means of local funding agencies and/or philanthropic organizations.

Encourage close cooperation of prospective employers via advisory council participation.

Expand followup research to gain information beyond the 3 month period.

Screening of program entrants to discourage entrance of persons not desiring enrollment but who are required to participate in training programs in order to receive public assistance.

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FAMILY SUPPORT SYSTEMS AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT: A COMMUNITY PROFILE

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There is increasing need for communities to make judgments concerning the competing demands for tax and voluntary support of human services. Needs assessment surveys are useful tools for identifying and prioritizing these demands. Such a survey was undertaken in Delaware, Ohio in 1978-1979. This paper will explore the methodology used in carrying out the needs assessment survey and will examine some of the findings of the study.

As funding for a wide variety of social programs designed to support families becomes less available, the need to prioritize areas of service will become intensified. Presently many human and material resources are being extended in support systems intended to meet a broad spectrum of individual and family needs (Kamerman, 1978). However, these programs frequently function without adequate data regarding the actual need for the service or the need for other services deemed more important by their constituents. Needs assessment surveys are an effective means of establishing a community's priorities for human services. In addition, they can generate information useful in program development, enhance interagency cooperation, and provide a base for funding and accountability (Neuber, 1980; Orenstein, 1978; Warheit, 1975). They can also provide a unique opportunity for community/university cooperation (Neuber, 1980; United Way, 1979). This paper will discuss a Human Needs Assessment Survey undertaken in Delaware County, Ohio during the summer of 1979 (United Way, 1979).

The Purpose

The purpose of the research was to determine how adequately the social, economic and psychological needs of individuals and families in Delaware County were being met through the existing human resource system. A comprehensive survey of residents was undertaken to identify and document the dimensions and characteristics of present services as well as to identify areas of unmet needs. The study had four objectives:

1. to survey Delaware County residents to determine their opinions about the extent and nature of their own needs in the area of human services.

2. to determine residents' knowledge and understanding of the existing service delivery systems and how these systems have helped and may help them to meet their needs.

3. to encourage residents to express their views about services and programs they believe should be provided by community human delivery system with some sort of prioritization.

4. to determine the degree of support for increases in funding and ways to provide for new funding.

The Process

From the very beginning the Needs Assessment Project of Delaware County was a joint town and gown effort. It was sponsored by the United Way and funded by a grant from CETA at a total authorized cost of $46,453 (United Way, 1979). The actual costs however would have been far greater had the voluntary services of dozens of community, agency and university workers been paid for. Most of the monies received from CETA were used to print the survey instrument and pay the interviewers and the project coordinator. Small amounts were used to pay consultants and for data analysis. Most of the costs related to data analysis were assumed by Ohio Wesleyan University.

A primary concern in the development of the survey instrument--as with any needs assessment instrument--was that the data would eventually be used. To make certain that the data collected met the information requirements of potential users and to ensure that the project assess the total framework of the social and human service community, a large-group meeting was held. All directors of human service agencies and selected university professors who worked with the agencies on a regular basis were invited to attend. At the meeting all were informed of the purpose, goals and scope of the project and were asked to submit questions related to these goals that they would like to see answered by the general public in Delaware County. Representatives were given two weeks to submit such questions to the Needs Assessment Advisory Committee, which was composed of selected agency and university personnel who reviewed and organized the questions. Later, when re-prioritizing the general areas to be covered, questions which were of interest to the greatest number of agencies and organizations had preference over those which were of interest to only one or two. After several meetings the Advisory Committee was able to reduce the questionnaire from the original interview schedule which took over two hours to administer, to one that could be completed in 45 minutes. After a

field testing of thirty interviews was completed a few more revisions were made.

The final questionnaire contained 363 questions relating to the personal and family needs of respondents: financial, health and medical, problem solving methods, problem assessment, preventive service needs and goals. This questionnaire was used along with open-ended questions in the field interviews (Orenstein, 1978).

Several sampling methodologies have been developed for needs assessment research (Warheit, 1975). In this study a randomly selected sample of 795 adults, 63% from the county and 37% from the city was used. The interviewing was done by six full-time CETA survey takers. Interview training was intensive and again a joint university-community responsibility. Training included sessions on listening skills, role of an interviewer in a research project, recording data, open-ended questions, the importance of delivery, probing, etc. (Hoinville, 1977). There was role playing and finally pilot testing of the questionnaire. A great deal of the cost involved in doing the survey resulted from paying the surveyors. If funding were not available, students could be easily trained for interviewing, providing them with a useful research experience and substantially reducing costs of the study (Neuber, 1980).

Each interviewer wore a photo ID and handed residents a letter of introduction. Names, project description and license plate numbers of all cars used in the field were registered with the city police department, the sheriff's office and the Delaware County Chamber of Commerce, prior to the first day out in the field. The local newspaper and radio station gave considerable coverage to the project and asked the public to cooperate with the interviewers.

Completed interview schedules were edited by the project coordinator within two days. Ten percent of the returned surveys were validated by a phone call by the project director. Coding was done by the survey staff once 92% of the interviewing had been complete. It took 35 work days to code and check the 795 surveys.

Keypunching was another example of shared community involvement and support. A keypunch class at the Delaware City and County Joint Vocational School did all of the keypunching in exchange for some practical experience.

The Findings

A number of questions in the survey were designed to elicite information regarding respondents' attitudes, concerns and needs within their neighborhoods. From the responses we received to our

questions, residents of Delaware City and County like their neighbors and their neighborhoods. 95.6% of the total sample responded "yes" to the question: "Do you like the neighborhood in which you live?" Of the twenty-three reasons given for liking one's neighborhood, over 90% indicated that qualities of quiet, private and seclusion were important.

But not all was euphoria within the neighborhoods. Residents regarded automobile related nuisances as major problems: speeding, street maintenance, traffic and noise pollution. At first glance it appeared that concerns by residents were minor, since each problem was only mentioned by a small percentage of the respondents, however, taken collectively over 33% of the individuals interviewed felt that their neighborhood had a problem of one sort or another which affected the quality of their life. This suggests that although people like the area where they are living, they are cognizant of some problems affecting their surroundings.

Housing and the provision of housing in Delaware County especially low and moderate cost housing, parallels pretty much the experience of other communities. 244 respondents or 31% indicated that they had searched for housing in the past five years.

The provision of housing and problems associated with it become even more dramatic when data regarding location and income were compared with housing searches, needs and problems. Not surprising, the lowest income population reported the greatest difficulty finding satisfactory housing arrangements, and it is possible that the data underestimated the extent of this dissatisfaction since the lowest income population know from past experience that there is no housing available at a price they can afford and therefore do not search for it. Over 40% of the population in the income category $5000-$10,000 indicated they would move if they could. In short, it was found that low-income respondents in our sample had the same housing goals as higher income respondents, but less change of achieving them.

It is interesting to note that the areas in which the housing search was smallest by all income groups was within the county. County respondents indicate greater satisfaction with their environment and therefore were less likely to want to change residence. One other interesting finding--a cross-tabulation of the data on housing search with place of birth and present location indicated that if a person was born in the county and now lives in the county, he/she is less likely to want to move than any other resident of Delaware City or County.

One direct result of the housing related findings was the establishment of a housing taskforce who after a year's work, presented to Delaware City Council a proposal for a local housing authority to encourage the development of low and moderate priced housing.

To get a measure of the mental and social problems faced by Delaware County residents several different kinds of questions were asked. When asked what were the major problems they faced, respondents most frequently indicated limitations of work due to physical, mental or emotional illness--over 20% of the sample gave these responses. Surprisingly problems related to age or finances were not frequently reported--8% and 7% respectively

When respondents were presented specific problems and asked to indicate those with which they needed assistance, the responses given were congruent with those given in the free response question: 6.8% indicated mental or emotional problems, 6.2% alcoholism, and 2.6% indicated a need for help with drug addiction.

The researchers are aware of the limitations placed on their findings by the very nature of the information requested since many people are reluctant to admit to problems which are viewed by society as abnormal or undesirable. Further, some people may also regard such problems as private family information not to be shared with strangers. Given a recognization of these constraints, the researchers were, nonetheless, astonished at the infrequency of reported problems in these areas; experience with social agencies would indicate a far greater frequency with the problems than the data supported.

In response to the question, "Have any of the following situations occurred in your family in the past year?": 36% reported hospitalization of family member, 13.3% death of family member, 5% had to receive welfare, 2.1% reported serious parent/child conflicts, 1.5% mentioned imprisonment, .5% suicide. The researchers felt that all of these problems would cause stress within the family and could be used as a measure of emotional strain within families.

Several questions were designed to measure the extent to which families sought professional help with family problems, and once again the researchers were surprised at the small percentage of people indicating voluntary receipt of counseling or help during the past year. Only 15% of the sample indicated problems with: depression, marriage, family crisis, legal problems, problems with everyday life, and alcohol and drug use as reasons for seeking help. Because some of our agencies were considering the use of group homes, respondents were asked "How likely is it that you would support a group home in your neighborhood for delinquent, unruly children, abuse cases, physically handicapped persons, mentally handicapped persons, alcoholics, drug addicts, parolees?" A significant majority of our respondents, 6:1 would support such an arrangement for abuse cases and physically handicapped persons. A lesser majority 2:1 would support group homes for delinquent, unruly children and mentally handicapped persons. There was no

generalized support for homes for alcoholics, drug addicts, or parolees.

Most of the respondents scored low on the scale designed to measure their knowledge of currently available resources; which may help explain the small percentage of participants indicating problems with unmet needs. It clearly indicated the need for greater agency effort to establish visability and to better communicate their services within the community. The family was viewed as the most appropriate place for solving personal and family problems. This view confirmed the general concensus reached at the Delaware County area meetings on the White House Conference on the Family. Not surprising, voluntary funding, federal revenue sharing and charging a fee for services were seen as more desirable than increasing taxes in order to finance needed services.

In general, our data suggested that residents of Delaware County felt that family needs could be met with the existing human resource network--that services were available and reasonably adequate.

A monograph published by Sage and edited by Keith A. Neuber and his associates (1980) entitled Needs Assessment: A Model for Community Planning, contains an assessment model called CONA, Community Oriented Needs Assessment. It elaborates on a methodology not unlike that used in the Delaware research--which is not surprising considering that the methodology described resulted from a cooperative effort between a mental health agency and the research and public service center of a local university. The book recounts in detail the steps to be taken in doing community needs assessment and would be a useful resource for needs assessment researchers.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHILD NUTRITION AND FAMILY RESOURCES: A FEASIBILITY STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Lifetime nutritional status and good health habits have been shown to be much influenced by diet during the preschool years. The study reported here was planned to investigate the relationship between the nutritional status of preschool children and selected family characteristics and resource availability and/or utilization. Parents of children who attended four child care centers were contacted seeking their participation. The 28 who agreed to take part each attended a two-hour session during which they completed (1) a form concerning the child's dietary intake; (2) a family data form; and (3) a Q-Sort of family tasks and activities. A child from each family who attended a half-day session at the child care center was weighed and other appropriate measurements taken. Some changes have been recommended for additional data collection including (1) a longer period of recording dietary intake; (2) avoidance of weekends in the dietary records; and (3) elimination and/or addition of family tasks and activities. This limited investigation indicated that the dependent variables of (1) nutritional adequary of diet, and (2) the physical growth of children in the study may be related to family income, educational status, employment status and occupation of parents, use of time and emphasis placed on certain family activities and tasks. Further study seems to be feasible and potential usefulness to educators in nutrition, home management and the family life field was indicated.

The Relationship Between Child Nutrition and Family Resources: A Feasibility Study

The lifetime food intake pattern is one of the health practices believed to influence life expectancy. During infancy and the preschool years, food likes and dislikes are developed and a dietary pattern is established. Food habits begun during the preschool years usually remain the basis of food selection throughout the individual's lifetime.

The presence or absence of nutrients in the foods consumed will directly influence both the quantity and the quality of life. At no time is this more true than during the growing years. "Every experimenter in nutrition knows that a growing animal shows effects of changing food intake and deprivation sooner than an adult animal does" (Adolph, 1972). Recovery from any nutritional deficiency in a child may be prolonged, or in some cases, impossible.

The population studied was selected for three reasons:

1. the preschool years are the best time to establish good food habits or, if necessary, to correct poor food habits;
2. this age group does not regularly eat meals outside the home; and
3. the children are readily available at child care centers and nursery schools.

Home economists view events from a family perspective. Research in the nutrition area often is accomplished with little reference to the family of the person involved. The purpose of this study was to determine the feasibility of investigating the relationships between the nutritional status of children and resource availability and utilization by their families.

Method

The sample was composed of 29 children attending nursery schools or child care centers in northwest Ohio and their mothers. Mothers and/or fathers at four schools or centers were invited to participate through a letter sent home with the children. All the volunteer respondents were mothers and their children in the child care programs included 16 boys and 13 girls. The nutritional data collected at one center were found to be extremely slanted because they were collected for a Sunday on which all of the children had unusual food intakes. This group of five were omitted when

the diets were considered. All centers operated on a half-day basis with the children receiving only a small snack while at the center which had a minimal influence on the total diet of the child involved. To obtain nutritional information each parent was asked for a 24-hour recall of food intake for her child as well as for general information. In addition to caloric level, the amounts of protein, calcium, iron, and vitamins A, C, thiamin, riboflavin, and niacin ingested were compared with the Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA's) for the child's age group.

The intakes of each nutrient were divided into five groups based on percentages of the RDA as follows:

1. below 66 2/3% of the RDA. (Any diet containing less than two-thirds of the RDA for one, or more, nutrients is considered POOR.)

2. 66 2/3% to 100% of the RDA. (These levels are considered FAIR and deficiency symptoms would not be expected.)

3. 100 to 150% of the RDA. (These levels are considered EXCELLENT.)

4. 150 to 200% of the RDA. (These levels are considered mildly EXCESSIVE.) And,

5. above 200% of the RDA. (These levels are considered EXCESSIVE, and may be toxic, depending upon the nutrient and the amount of intake. If a single nutrient is excessive, an imbalance of nutrients may occur which could be as dangerous as a deficiency of a single nutrient.)

Caloric intakes were divided into four groups using the RDA's for children collected from the longitudinal growth studies. They were divided as follows:

1. below the 10th percentile;
2. between the 10th percentile and the median;
3. between the median and the 90th percentile; and
4. above the 90th percentile.

For purposes of this study the lowest level of ranking of a nutrient was labeled a deficiency. Caloric intake below the tenth percentile was arbitrarily classified as deficient.

Two techniques were developed for exploring the relationships between resource availability and utilization by families

and the nutritional status of the children. One was a questionnaire for collecting data about family income, employment, educational level, use of community resources and other potential independent variables. The other device was a Q-Sort using 45 tasks or activities done by families. Each person used approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire and another 10-15 minutes to sort the tasks. Tasks were placed in one of seven stacks identifying how often one task was repeated, varying from "more than once a day" to "rarely or never done."

Five family characteristics were selected as independent variables, i.e., family income, age and educational level of mothers, number of visits per year made to a doctor, and number of children in the family. The Q-Sort was assumed to indicate amount of time use with regard to selected activities and was also utilized as an independent variable. Each respondent's ranking of repetition of tasks was assigned a first to fifth placement. The average number of nutritional deficiencies observed per child was computed and utilized as a measurement when comparing task rankings as well as selected family characteristics.

Sample

Of the families involved in the study, almost 50% had incomes of $25,000 or more and 75% had incomes above $20,000. None of the families would be considered a low income or poverty level family. Because of this small differential in income, generalizations based on this resource would have limited value.

The fathers of the children in the study represented a broad range of occupations but more than 40% were employed in the business world. School employees and factory workers were each represented by 11% of the sample. More than 20% were self-employed and 67% of those were professionals (doctors, lawyers, etc.). More than 70% of the mothers were full-time homemakers. Twenty-five percent reported that they worked part-time outside the home and only one mother said that she had a full-time job outside the home.

The children were young and it is not unusual, therefore, that just slightly more than 40% of the mothers were in the 25 to 29 years of age group and 86% were under 35 years of age. It is more unexpected, perhaps, that some were 40 years or older.

All of the fathers of the children completed high school and 75% of them had additional education. About 40% had received

Master's degrees or higher, and the remainder had some college education or a Bachelor's degree. All of the mothers had also completed high school. More than one-half had attended college.

The ages of the children varied from less than three years to slightly over five years. About 30% were just four or younger; more than 50% were in the four to five year age group; and only 20% were more than five years of age. More than 60% of the children were in families with only two children. Another 20% were in a three-child family. One was in a four-child family and the remainder were only children. Of those in families with more than one child, just over half in the study were the youngest child and 45% were the eldest child in the family.

The families did not make frequent visits to a doctor. The largest group (39%) made five or less visits per year, while another 33% made from six to ten visits per year and only 11% reported making more than 15 per year.

The sample participating in the study was not representative of any other group. Compilation of the data provided on the survey form showed that some comparison based on independent variables was possible. Use of this group when analyzing potential of proposed observation devices should assist with making predictions for a randomly selected sample.

Results and Discussion

Recommended daily allowances for nutrients established by the Food & Nutrition Board of the National Research Council (RDA, 1980) for the children in this study were at two levels. One level is for children one to three years old and the other is for children four to six years old. When the diets were analyzed, three of the children in the one to three years of age group had one deficiency each. Two other children in this age group were deficient in two nutrients each. In the four to six years of age group, there was one child deficient in four nutrients, one child with three deficiencies, two children with two deficiencies, and four children with one deficiency each. The child whose diet was poor for four nutrients was also below the 10th percentile for calories.

No child was deficient in protein or in vitamin C intake. Seven children were deficient in calcium, eight were deficient in iron, two children were deficient in each of the vitamins A, thiamin and niacin, and one child was below the 10th percentile for calories.

When comparing the mother's age groups the average number of deficiencies (0.78) in the children of the younger mothers

(25-29 years) was less than the average number (1.75) of deficiencies in children with older mothers (30-34 years). The children with mothers 35 years old or over had the smallest number of deficiencies (0.5), however. Sixty-seven percent of the children with mothers in the youngest age group had no deficiency although only 21% of those with the older mothers had no deficiencies.

Differences in number of dietary deficiencies were evident when mothers who had completed one or more college degrees were compared with those who had some college, but no degree, or who had completed high school only. Those children with mothers who had no college degrees had 1.4 deficiencies per child and those children whose mothers had completed college averaged 1.0 nutritional deficiency. Almost the same percentage of the children of mothers in each educational group had some dietary deficiencies.

The estimated number of visits made to a doctor by the families may have a slight relationship to the number of nutritional deficiencies. Children in families making no more than ten visits per year averaged 1.32 nutritional deficiencies while those in families making more than ten visits averaged 0.75. Just under 37% of those making fewer visits had no nutritional deficiencies while 50% of those visiting the doctor more frequently had none.

Nutritional deficiencies were much more prevalent when there was only one child in the family. These children had an average of 3.0 deficiencies per child although the average number in families with two children was 0.84. If the child in the study were the elder, that child had slightly more deficiencies (0.9) than if he were the younger child (0.78). There were insufficient families with more than two children to do any comparisons. All the children who were in one-child families had one or more deficiency and less than one-half of those in the two-child families had any dietary problem.

The respondents' ranking of how often selected tasks were done resulted in some interesting apparent relationships. The categories of tasks that were ranked included: (a) housekeeping, (b) personal and social, (c) child and family, and (d) food related (see Figure 1).

There was a possible relationship between ranking of housekeeping tasks and number of deficiencies. The children of those subjects who ranked housekeeping tasks highest had an average of 2.0 deficiencies. Those children whose mothers ranked these tasks in second or third place averaged 1.5 deficiencies and those whose mothers ranked the tasks in fourth or fifth place

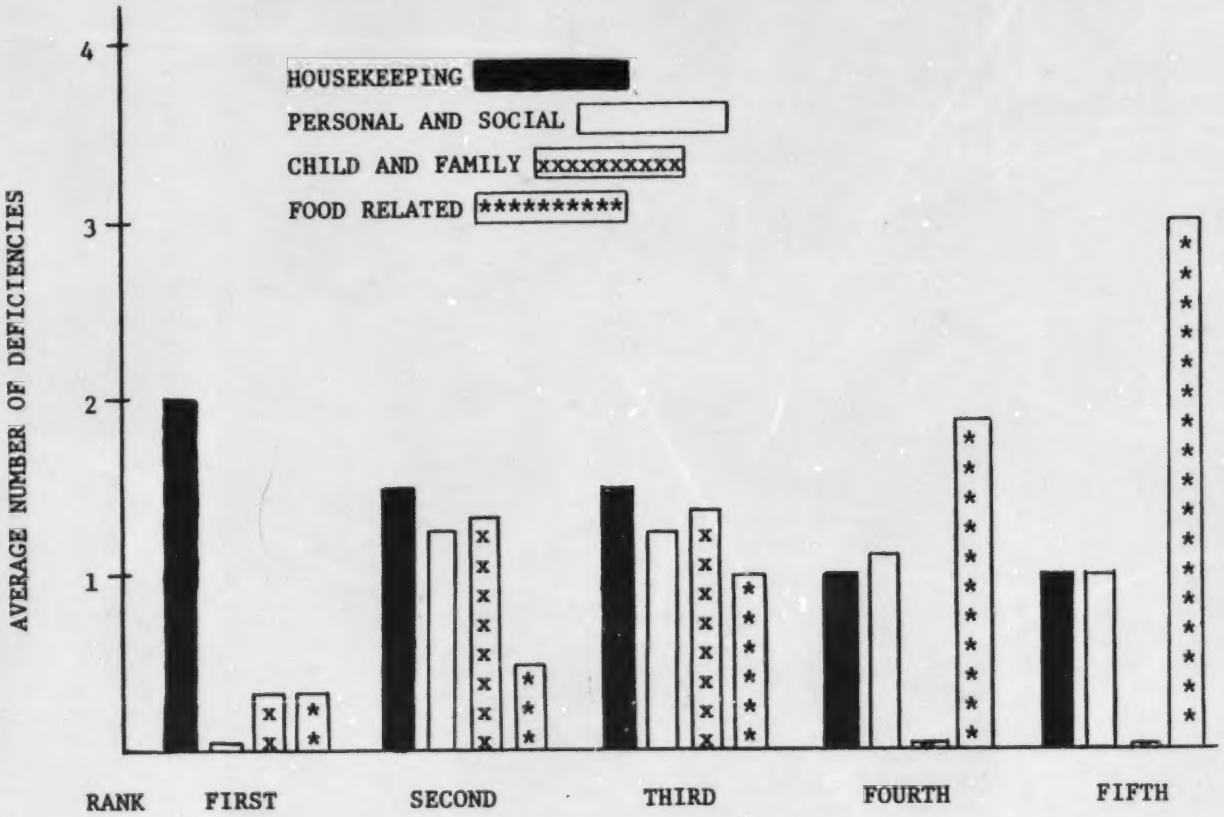

FIGURE 1. Number of Nutrient Deficiencies by Ranking of Task Categories

had children with an average of 1.0 deficiency.

No relationship was noted when the ranking of the personal and social tasks was observed. No deficiencies were noted for children whose mothers ranked these tasks highest. All other placements had one, or slightly more, deficiencies per child.

The child and family tasks showed a similar lack of relationship as in the personal and social tasks. The respondents with the highest ranking had children averaging 0.33 deficiency. An average of 1.33 deficiencies was found among the children of those placing these tasks second or third. With those who ranked these tasks in fourth or fifth place, no deficiencies were found in the children.

The most interesting apparent relationship was noted in the food related task category. The least deficiencies per child (0.33) were observed when the mother ranked these tasks highest. As the ranking of food related tasks became lower, the average number of deficiencies increased with 0.5 deficiency for the second place; 1.0 deficiency for the third place; 1.8 deficiencies for the fourth place; and an average of 3.0 deficiencies per child when the mother ranked these tasks in fifth place.

Although the respondents and children involved in the study were not randomly selected and the numbers were very small, it appeared that some relationships may exist. Knowledge of these could prove beneficial to those involved in nutrition education.

Recommendations

The feasibility of a future study with the purpose specified for this one appears to be established. A random or total sample of the same population that was utilized for this study would ensure more generalizable data. Diet information for seven days for each child collected at six-month intervals will produce more accurate data for drawing conclusions. The height and weight of the parents will be obtained to determine if the child is at his expected growth potential. Other anthropometric measurements will be done.

Items in the Q-Sort need to be revised to ensure validity of their utilization as time use indicators. A separate check-sheet should be included for the respondents to estimate time use and indicate preference for the various categories of tasks.

Hypotheses which should be tested include:

Deficient and/or excessive diets of preschool children are related to:

(a) family income;
(b) mother's age and educational level;
(c) number of children in the home;
(d) time-use ranking of selected activities; and
(e) use of other selected resources.

The sample studied was small, but if it is typical of the population at large, it is particularly important since nutritionists would be able to isolate on those children who are at the highest risk for development of poor food intake patterns. They could concentrate on modifying the resource utilization of the mothers of these children. If resources are unavailable, their procurement may need to be addressed by social agencies.

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THE MACHO MALE AND WIFE BEATING

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ABSTRACT

Wife abuse is most often precipitated in the male by alcohol, the male right to be violent, and a poor self-image. Curiously, recent studies show that these are the principal characteristics of the macho male. It can be concluded that wife beating is part of the cultural ethic of machismo.

The problem of wife abuse is one of considerable concern in our society today. Just what kind of a man is it who will physically beat upon his wife? What kind of psychological make up will allow for such violence in an intimate relationship? Studies investigating the principal characteristics of the wife abuser have come up with the following main aspects:

1. Alcoholism - There is a general assumption that alcohol consumption is related to spouse abuse (Langley, 1977). Estimates vary from 40 to 95 percent of all wife beating situations being alcohol related. As one study concludes "In 60 percent of the cases, alcohol consumption by the assailant was always present at the time of the attack. In an additional 10 percent alcohol was present occasionally. . . The characterization of the drunken husband as a wife-beater has some merit." (Eisenberg and Micklow, 1974).

What is unclear is whether the husband acts violent because he is drunk, or if he becomes drunk so that he can act violently (Langley, 1977). Since alcohol acts as a depressant, a violent man who is drunk will have less control of his rage and well be more likely to act it out (Shainess, 1977).

2. Male right to be violent - Many claim that much of society accepts and even glorifies physical force under certain circumstances. A Louis poll reports that one-fifth of the population, including women, approve of a man slapping his wife (Langley, 1977). Many

husbands feel that it is their right to hit their wives. Some report that they only hit their spouse "when they deserve it" (Gelles, 1974). The fact that the courts often release a man who has beaten his mate is evidence that society accepts such activity.

3. Poor self-image - Many studies point out that male abusers are often men who feel that they don't measure up to society's expectations of masculinity. As a result they turn to violence as a way of compensating for these feelings of inadequacy. This problem starts in childhood, where boys are expected to be tough and aggressive. They learn to demonstrate their masculinity through violence (Langley, 1977).

The inadequate feeling male is often from the lower socio-economic levels. He is often dissatisfied with his job, and the amount of prestige and money that it provides for him and his family. He is usually less educated than his neighbors or even his own wife. Such men are frustrated and embarrassed by their relative lack of achievement and will often take out their frustrations on their wives.

The man who feels inadequate can easily be moved to physical violence by a wife who insults him verbally, calling his masculinity into question. Physical force is the way to get even and demonstrate one's masculinity (Langley, 1977). Jealousy often enters into the equation as well. Jealousy is a common cause of family violence and it often exists in a man with low self-esteem. He sees himself as undeserving and others as potential rivals for his partner (Roy, 1977).

In summary, it appears that if you take a man suffering from low self-esteem and doubts about his masculinity, due chiefly to economic problems, put him in a society that condons violence for men, and then add drunkeness and jealousy, wife beating is a likely result. Nichols, (1976; 27), states; "Complicating the issue of abuse, per se, are a number of other symptoms or problems: excessive use of alcohol; economic stress; high unemployment and poor environmental conditions are recurring major factors."

Curiously, these are the same descriptors for another type of well-studied male, the macho. It could well be said that wife beating is simply one aspect of a larger psycho-sociological climate, that of machismo. A look at the principal characteristics of the macho male will bear this out.

The first characteristic of the macho male is his aggressiveness. Each macho must show that he is masculine, strong, and physically powerful. All types of challenges must be met with fists (Giraldo, 1972). Violence is not only accepted, but expected as well. Men believe that they are superior to women, and many of the women themselves concur with this belief (Stycos, 1955).

Another key aspect of machismo is sexual exploitation and infidelity. Each husband knows that other men are like himself, so they are very jealous of their wives. As a result they allow them very few liberties and will react violently to suspected indiscretions. A macho male would not hesitate to strike his wife for disobeying him or for shaming him in front of others (Giraldo, 1972).

The macho male is also a heavy drinker. To be a "good drinker" is a chief characteristic of machismo (Kapp, 1964). The true macho should be capable of drinking great quantities of liquor (Giraldo, 1972).

As with wife beating, feelings of inadequacy seem to be at the base of macho-like behavior. A boy learns from his father that he should always be strong and aggressive. Unable to fulfill the model completely, he overcompensates with exaggerated violence (Giraldo, 1972). The macho fears being dominated by women so he reacts to such attempts with intense anger, often in the form of wife beating (Goldsmith and Goldberg, 1974).

Once again, it is believed that economic problems is a chief cause of the inferiority feelings. Rainwater (1965) found that lower class males from all areas suffer from job insecurity and compensate for their feelings of inferiority by exaggerated masculinity and subordinating women.

It appears, in conclusion that wife beating is part of the cultural ethic of machismo. It is a climate of belief in male superiority and right to violence, combined with feelings of inadequacy and frustration. When this anger is released by circumstances such as jealousy and/or drunkeness, wife abuse often results.

Men and women both need to be educated in their roles. Both sexes need to rid themselves of the basic macho beliefs of:

1. Men have a higher status than women;
2. Physical force is a way to solve personal problems;
3. Men who are not physically dominant are not masculine;
4. Men should "sow their wild oats" while women remain virgins and maintain complete fidelity in the marriage union;
5. Excessive drinking connotated with being a man; and
6. Excessive jealousy.

A social climate should prevail where the sexes are equal and violence is not condoned. This is essential to the elimination of machismo, and as a result, spouse abuse.

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COUPLES COMMUNICATION WORKSHOP

Reuben and Darlene Drefs
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Lakewood, Ohio

SUMMARY OF WORKSHOP PRESENTATION

Objectives

The Couples Communication Program was presented through a forty minute live demonstration. This learning experience allowed all participants to acquire an understanding of the four styles of communication. Also, information was provided on how to become involved in the program or how to become an instructor.

Data Source

Couples Communication was developed by Sherod Miller and Associates. They have authored four sets of material:

1. Alive and Aware (The original textbook of Couples Communication classes).
2. Talking Together (Presently used as the textbook for Couples Communication classes).
3. Straight Talk (A paperback book which describes the skills and concepts of the program).
4. Working Together (A combination text and work book for communication on the job).

Application of Presentation

Participants should be able to use three main concepts: The awareness wheel format, mapping an issue, and the styles of communication. A further step can be negotiated for interested professionals to become instructors in order to teach the program in their own local agencies and communities.

TEACHING INFANTS AND TODDLERS

Doris K. Williams
Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, Ohio

SUMMARY OF VIDEO PRESENTATION

Babies and young children are "learners" as much as school age and teenage children are. It may be at a different level, but the concepts learned are just as important or perhaps even more important than those learned at a later age.

Learning takes place through the sense of feeling, seeing, hearing, and general reaction. Many people do not realize the value of infants' and toddlers' activities. It is through stimulating and creative play activities that children learn.

The television series is based on several assumptions: (1) That the concepts demonstrated are useful for all parents, (2) That the majority of parents need "education for parenthood," (3) That the visual media is an efficient and effective way to reach them, (4) That the planned stimulation encourages more positive growth, and (5) That when the child learns to "cope" with the current developmental stage, it establishes a foundation for success at later stages.

The primary method used in the tapes to demonstrate the various concepts is interaction between parents and children.

The seven tapes in the series focus on:

Program No. 1	"0-3 Months" Seeing, Hearing, Feeling, General Imitation
Program No. 2	"4-5 Months" Seeing, Hearing, Feeling, General Imitation
Program No. 3	"6-8 Months" Seeing, Hearing, Feeling, General Imitation, Spatial Relationships
Program No. 4	"9-11 Months" Seeing, Hearing, Feeling, General Imitation, Spatial Relationships, Self-Awareness, Cause - Effect
Program No. 5	"12-14 Months" Seeing, Hearing, Imitation, Spatial Relationships, Self-Awareness, Imagination, Problem Solving, Language
Program No. 6	"15-20 Months" Fine Motor, Gross Motor, Self-Awareness, Imagination, Problem Solving, Language, Imitation

Program No. 7 "21-29 Months" Fine Motor, Gross Motor, Self-Awareness, Imagination, Self - Care, Weight, Problem Solving, Language

Each tape has an accompanying activity sheet.

APPENDIX A

ANNUAL MEETING

OF

OHIO COUNCIL ON FAMILY RELATIONS

FRIDAY, MARCH 20, 1981

COLUMBUS TECHNICAL INSTITUTE
550 EAST SPRING
COLUMBUS, OHIO

Conference Theme:

FAMILIES: ISSUES AND INTERACTIONS

Program Committee:
Jonnie H. Budke, Program Chairperson
Kathleen Campbell, President-elect
Ann Skopin, Newsletter Editor
Sara Derrick, Immediate Past President

P R O G R A M

9:00 - 9:25 A.M.	Meeting OCFR Members
9:30 - 10:00 A.M.	Registration/Coffee
10:00 - 10:15 A.M.	Welcome: Jonnie H. Budke, President

Program Moderator - Jonnie H. Budke, President

SESSION I. ADOLESCENT AND STUDENT CONCERNS

TIME: 10:20 - 11:30 A.M. Moderator: Bron Ingoldsby
Kent State University

1. Women Students and the Need for Female Role Models
Kathleen Campbell, Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, Ohio

2. Abortion Attitudes Among High School and College Students
Sara Derrick, Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, Ohio

3. Adolescents' Perception of Support from the Absent Father After Divorce
   Patricia R. Thomas, The University of Akron
   Akron, Ohio

SESSION II. FAMILY AND COMMUNITY

TIME: 10:20 - 11:30 A.M.

Moderator: Jonnie H. Budke
Columbus Technical Institute

1. Relative Effects of Unemployment, Age and Education on Stability During the First Five Years of Marriage
   Richard J. Galligan, The University of Akron
   Akron, Ohio

2. Status Report of Displaced Homemaker Programs Operated by The Division of Vocational Education, Ohio Department of Education
   Gail H. Henderson, Division of Vocational Education
   Ohio Department of Education

3. Family Support Systems and Needs Assessment: A Community Profile
   Olga B. Hough, Ohio Wesleyan University
   Delaware, Ohio

SESSION III. ISSUES IN FAMILY LIFE

TIME: 12:45 - 1:45 P.M.

Moderator: Kathleen Campbell
Bowling Green State University

1. Relationship Between Child Nutrition and Family Resources: A Feasibility Study
   Wanda Montgomery and Lois Renker, Bowling Green State University
   Bowling Green, Ohio

2. The Macho Male and Wife Beating
   Bron Ingoldsby, Kent State University
   Kent, Ohio

SESSION IV. WORKSHOPS/VIDEO

TIME: 1:50 - 3:10 P.M.

1. Couples Communication
   Reuben and Darlene Drefs, Pastoral Counseling Growth Center
   Lakewood, Ohio

2. Teaching Infants and Toddlers (Video Presentation)
   Doris K. Williams, Bowling Green State University
   Bowling Green, Ohio

SESSION V. PANEL -- ISSUES IN FAMILY POLICY: WHAT STANCE SHOULD OCFR TAKE IN THE OHIO POLICY MAKING ARENA?

TIME: 3:15 - 4:30 P.M.

Chairperson: Richard J. Galligan
The University of Akron
Akron, Ohio

Panel Members:

Joan Lawrence, Executive Director
Family Service Council of Ohio

Robert Birch, Private Practice, Marriage and Family Therapy
Columbus, Ohio

Deborah Connally, Director, Human Services Akron Metropolitan YMCA
Akron, Ohio